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International aspects of special education are presented in the following papers: individual programs in the education of emotionally disturbed children in seven European countries and their common elements by Joan Bowers; a description of the special programs for exceptional children in France by Gertrude G. Justison; special education in England and issues for international cooperative planning and organization by Ronald Gulliford. An abstract, by Jason McCallum, treats the subject of an educational survey of the mentally retarded child in 10 European countries. This unit of reports is available in microfiche. (WW)

SELECTED CONVENTION PAPERS

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THE EDUCATION OF EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED CHILDREN IN SEVEN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES STUDIED IN THE SUMMER OF 1967

by

Joan E. Bowers

These observations attempt to distinguish the essential features of some services and programs for emotionally disturbed children in various European countries and to indicate the elements common to two or more countries.

Individual Programs

In England, the local educational authorities are responsible for the provision of services for the children in their schools. In consequence, one finds evidence of a positive relationship between the size of a community and the number and variability of the programs established.

One finds child guidance services, which usually include psychological and school health services, and special day classes for emotionally maladjusted children. Pupils attending these classes remain on the register of their regular school, but spent two to five half day sessions per week at a special class consisting of about five pupils selected by the educational psychologist after an examination of referrals submitted by teachers.

The teacher of the special day class arranges for the admission of the pupil, makes decisions concerning the number of sessions attended during the week, and facilitates the return of the pupil to the regular school when this is believed to be warranted. Teachers of these special day classes have almost unlimited freedom in organizing their groups and planning the program. Frequently, they place both aggressive and passive children in a single group. They encourage the pupils to enage in individual creative work such as painting and provide assistance in academic work to pupils desiring it. The teachers see their function as being primarily one of helping each child to release the emotional tension which hinders his learning, and they seek to establish a personal relationship with each pupil. They cultivate in the members of the class a sense of achievement in hope that curiosity and interest will grow and learning will ensue.

The regular day classes in England are comparable with the segregated classes for emotionally disturbed pupils found in certain centers in North America. Some maladjusted children coming from homes which apparently interfere with their improvement are placed in residential schools.

In general, the maladjusted child is kept with normal children as long as possible and removed for special treatment only when there is no other choice. When this is done, the pupils are returned to normal settings as soon as is feasible.

In France, it is firmly held that a team of specialists must study the child before a diagnosis is made. In consequence, a file on a French maladjusted pupil contains educational, social and medical histories as well as data

derived from the administration of a battery of mental tests. French workers believe that it is unwise to separate a child from his family unless this is absolutely necessary and they feel that it is a questionable procedure to make marked alteration in the general educational program. Consultations are given at mental health clinics, hospitals and juvenile courts. Residential centers are available for children under observation and for those who are seriously disturbed.

The French education authorities are proud of the services they have developed, but are aware of the necessity for their expansion. Their plans for the training of additional teachers and for increasing their facilities are impressive.

In the Canton of Geneva, Switzerland, the treatment of disturbed children is similar to that observed in France. Here also a child under consideration is seen by a team of specialists including a teacher, the social worker, the physician, the psychiatrist and the psychologist. In school, a quiet, calm, helpful and healthy environment is sought. There the child can learn to tolerate others and to earn their toleration while the team helps the family to eliminated home centered difficulties. In the canton, there are a few residential schools which are reluctantly used for pupils with serious problems. A child placed in one of these homes is left there for a short term only and is frequently visited by his parents.

The Inspector of Special Education in Geneva spoke of his satisfaction with the general format of their program. Year by year, younger children are being referred to the clinic. An increasing number of referrals are from anxious parents seeking assistance as soon as they notice a developing problem rather than, as in the early days of the clinic, from teachers referring pupils with more advanced and more deeply rooted conditions. The Geneva authorities plan to extend their Medical Pedagogical Clinic because of its significantly beneficial effects.

Czechoslovakia has begun to help emotionally disturbed children rather recently. It was hoped by Czechoslovak workers that as health services throughout the country improved, fewer children would be born with defects. However, they have confirmed observations made in other countries that this improvement is less effective in diminishing the relative number of gravely handicapped children than in additing to their life expectancy.

The Czechoslovakian services are based largely on the medical model. Out patient service is available at hospitals for children with behavioral disorders. Assessment is made in small regional centers. A decreasing emphasis is being placed on the establishment of large centers which, of necessity, must be inconveniently situated for many families.

At present in Hungary, there are few special arrangements for emotionally disturbed children. The problems presented by physically handicapped children and those of restricted intelligence take precedence over those resulting from other handicaps.

In the Soviet Union, one notes a tendency to regard all behavioral disturbance as attributable to damage to the central nervous system. It is recognized that the children require special treatment, but the educational treatment approximates more closely to that associated by us with intellectual limitation than to our proeedures designed to ameliorate emotional handicap. As the child spends much time at school and at the recreational buildings known as "Pioneer Palaces", the influence of the family is considerably less

than it would be in North America. In general, the family does not have an opportunity to influence adversely the development of a child, a situation which sometimes occurs in western societies.

Finland is increasing the number of regional diagnostic centers to which children presenting unusual problems to the school or to the family are brought under observation. These centers are committed to the multidisciplinary approach referred to in the discussion of French and Swiss procedures. In small communities, the teacher is expected to care for an emotionally disturbed child in the regular classroom, whereas in cities, observation classes have been established. The school authorities of Helsinki have decided to increase the number of observation classes for emotionally disturbed children because of obvious benefits derived from those already in existence. The Helsinki school system is also establishing a psychological service much larger than its present one to assist in the detection of children with problems and is establishing district child guidance clinics which will give treatment if the parents so desire.

Common Elements of European Programs

There are many common elements in assessment services and special classes dealing with emotional disturbance presented in this necessarily brief account of the facilities described by educational workers in seven European countries.

1. The needs of emotionally maladjusted children are gaining increased recognition.

2. Regional assessment centers are being established to ensure that children in need are looked after at a center close to the family.

3. Diagnosis has ceased to be essentially a medical assessment made by a physician or an educational appraisal made by a teacher aided by the school psychologist. Instead, assessment is seen as a many sided study of the child to which social workers, general physicians, psychiatrists, teachers, psychologists, speech consultants, recreation leaders, and others contribute. The day of the multidisciplinary approach has arrived in the assessment and treatment of the disturbed child.

4. Educational leaders agree that a variety of approaches must be developed in the attempt to solve the many varying problems presented to them by emotionally maladjusted children.

5. Most workers in this field express grave doubts concerning the wisdom of educating a disturbed child in a social environment consisting mainly of other disturbed children. It is acknowledged that some children cannot be kept in a regular classroom because their behavior seriously interferes with the learning of other pupils. However, if this interference can be avoided, it is firmly believed that an emotionally maladjusted child has more to learn from association with normal children than from placement with others like himself.

6. The teacher of one of these "Regular Classes" should be able to consult with specialists and to enlist the support of the school principal as an effective member of the team.

7. In view of the acknowledged desirability of fostering self confidence,

adept teachers give the children the maximum amount of mastery or apparent mastery of academic work.

8. While residential treatment is considered to be necessary for a child from a deficient family, it is not highly regarded in the treatment of the majority.

9. The need to involve the cooperative assistance of the family is widely, if not universally, acknowledged.

SPECIAL PROGRAMS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN IN FRANCE

by

Gertrude G. Justison

Background: Education in General

The Republic of France is the largest country of Europe excluding Soviet Russia. Like its neighbor Germany it had, until mid century, a highly organized system of national education operating from a central Ministry in Paris. Following World War II, national debate in education and the demand for major reforms provoked radical recrganization of education, especially in secondary and university programs.

Reforms decreed in 1959 under de Gaulle's Fifth Republic are still not completely implemented, but decentralization and curricular emphasis on technical and extended secondary schooling have modernized the narrow academic approach and have brought some progress toward democratization of the French educational system. Compulsory schooling to age sixteen (instead of to age fourteen) became effective in 1967. More pupils are staying longer in school and more from the middle and lower classes are now engaged in longer studies.

For purposes of local school administration, the country is divided into twenty academic districts. Each district as a university center administered by a rector (appointed by the Ministry) and advised by a local academic council. The rector has control over all types of instruction though a prefect handles routine matters and inspectors carry out supervisory and administrative functions. In general, each district is a fairly exact copy of the structure of the Central Ministry in Paris before it reshaped itself with the exception that the Branches (Primary, Secondary, or Technical) have formed a single corps responsible to the Executive Cabinet of the Ministry since 1961.

Schools are divided into three broad categories:

1. Nurseries and Kindergartens (for children under six years)

2. Elementary Schools (for children from six to 14 years)

3. Secondary Schools (for those from 11 to 17 years).

There are two cycles in secondary education: (a) the course common to all pupils 11 to 15 years of age and, (b) the more specialized training for technical or industrial occupations or preparatory for general education colleges (lycees) for youth 15 to 18 years. Higher education is available

through the 20 state controlled universities and a few private religious schools offering degrees in theology, law, and humanities. Since the early 1960's, higher education has suffered from overcrowding, lack of facilities, and shortages of personnel. Failure rates are high at the degree level (72 percent) but despite this the degree group accelerated from 5 percent in 1950 to 11 percent in 1960 and is expected to go as high as 22 percent by 1970.

Fraser (1967) reports that the children of agricultural workers are still not getting into the lycees in significantly large numbers. Budgetary restrictions have reduced the building of technical lycees, although five new Academic Institutes of Technology opened in 1965. These offer a degree in Technology after two years of study beyond high school. Thus it is clear that educational reforms have increased the diversity of university education and contributed, in part, to manpower needs.

Teacher preparation is undertaken at l'ecole normale (teacher training institute) and followed by a post baccalaureate course of professional training. Three years of study at l'ecole normale awards the baccalaureate degree and a teaching license. A fourth year (equating with a masters degree) of professional study earns the certificate. Fraser (1964) describes problems of content, method, and professional training as "slow to change," with the hierarchy of studies persisting, syllabi and method largely unaltered, with note taking, memorization, and verbalism persisting as modus operandi. Two new teaching degrees (baccalaureate) covering technical and industrial subjects have been added within recent years. In addition, according to Dr. R. Lafon at the International Congress on the Scientific Study of Mental Deficiency, in September, 1967, in Montpellier, France, a "distinct profession is establishing itself in France at the same time as in neighboring countries, that of the educator specialist and that is going to benefit by the institution of a State Diploma (personal notes)."

Special Education and Services

For several decades the French Legislative Body has been making efforts to provide help for the handicapped through Social Welfare or through Social Work assistance. These measures are not fully developed by do represent net progress from the early part of the century. Under present law, any infirmity bringing about 80 percent of permanent incapacity is eligible for social assistance within three months of disability.

Financial aid is given to parents of handicapped children of less than 15 years of age provided resources are not over a minimum ceiling. This seriously reduces the numbers who can benefit from such assistance. Costs for care and education of the handicapped placed in specialized institutions are assumed under public collections as provided under the law providing specialized education for all handicapped youth to age 20.

France has a large network of public and private specialized institutions for the blind, deaf, crippled, sick, and debilitated, and retarded. Most are coeducational residential institutions which offer comprehensive programs from preschool to and through technical and sometimes professional training. Many of these same institutions also offer educational programs and services to limited numbers of nonresidential (day) students. Throughout the provinces, especially in urban areas, many centers for training and therapies exist in connection with hospitals and University medical units.

Institutional Programs

Deaf and Hard of Hearing

The literature reports four national institutes for the deaf, all catering to both boarding and day students. Three are coeducational, one is for girls only. One admits pupils at age three; the others at age five--with training to age 21. In addition to these are seven state or county institutions and one private center (in Paris). These too are coeducational and cater to the four to 20 age group. Primary school classes for students with hearing deficiencies operate in boys' or girls' schools in nine provinces. Speech centers exist in connection with hospitals in seven cities throughout France and some seven phonoaudiological centers are attached to Paris hospitals. Speechreading is taught in three Paris centers and four other centers in the provinces, usually in urban areas close to medical schools or hospitals.

Professional preparation in audiology, speech pathology, and orthophony is available at eight centers of medicine and/or medical psychopedagogic institutes, again in major urban areas--Paris, Lyon, Toulouse, Marsailles and Bordeaux. Diploma or certificate awards for study depend on prior preparation and type and length of studies.

Blind and Partially Sighted

Several decades of legislative efforts through Social Welfare and Work Assistance on behalf of the blind represent some progress from the early part of the century. Unfortunately, the usual measures do not encourage the adult blind to work but do offer financial aid to the families of handicapped youth. The decree of May, 1964 maintains allowances for specialized education for blind youth placed in institutional care.

About two per 1,000 of the total school population are blind or partially sighted. Some seven agencies serve the blind. A network of specialized institutions, both private and public, in cooperation with the Ministry of Public Health and Population and the Ministry of National Education provide education at all levels up to and through higher education and professional preparation. The National Institution for the Blind, in Paris, deals with children from seven to 21 years of age. The Ministry of Education has also created many special courses for amblyopic children.

The Physically Handicapped

Incidence of physical handicap (motor handicapped and chronically ill) is estimated at about 12 percent of the population from five to 19 years of age, making imperative a program of diagnosis, treatment, and education at all levels and within a variety of structures. In those cases where extensive medical treatment mandates hospitalization and long term care, schooling is managed within the hospital setting. Periods of convalescence after intensive short term or long term hospitalization are utilized for educational assessment, remediation, or compensatory programs prescribed by teams of medical, psychological, and educational personnel in the rehabilitative effort. The professional personnel of such rehabilitative institutions are described as highly qualified. While some youths receive their entire schooling within medical institutions, an overwhelming majority receive special primary and/or secondary education enabling them to be readmitted to the normal school environment.

Programs for the homebound chronically ill child are facilitated by the use of telephone, radio, and television communication systems and cover primary,

secondary, and degree programs as a free service of the National Education Ministry.

A few specialized classes are attached to normal school groups for children who are orthopedically handicapped, epileptic, cardiac, asthmatic, hemophiliac, or otherwise chronically ill. Such classes enroll 12 to 15 children and offer individualized curricula in the protective environment which capitalizes on the outdoor milieu. A few of the chronically ill are able to attend boarding schools for advanced studies in Paris or Strasbourg.

Beis, Meyer, and Maniciaux (1966), in a study of 1,310 physically handicapped and chronically ill pupils five to 18 years of age within a normal school setting, found that 18 percent of all cases were enrolled in secondary and technical education. About seven percent of the study population were chronically ill, and the others were motor handicapped. Only six percent of the study population came from the rural areas. Of those cases reported, about one-third were in the 100+ IQ range, 25 percent in the 80 to 100 IQ range, and 23 percent had IQ's less than 80. Many motorically handicapped children are virtually deprived of adequate education despite the fact that 62 percent are of sufficient intellectual level to profit. It is claimed that this is the result of parental negligence to report to specialized institutions the handicapped status of their children.

Diabetic children in France must get approval of the head of the school for admission to normal day or boarding schools. If such admission is not approved, diabetic children can be enrolled in a school program in Niort where some sixty youth live in residence and attend different schools in the city on a day school basis.

Cardiac and Asthmatic youths attend classes generally with normal school children in the primary grades. In secondary school programs, placement in "climatized" lycees provide the healthy outdoor environment considered therapeutic for such disabilities.

Epileptic children were studied by P. Cridon (1965) of Nancy who reports that 60 percent of those enrolled in regular school programs attend regularly and about 10 percent show marked absenteeism. Of a sample population of 74 cases, Cridon found about 7 percent to be profoundly retarded.

Maladjusted--Emotionally Disturbed

The special decree of September 1965, in addition to the broad reforms of 1959, assures appropriate schooling for maladapted children and youth. Determination of eligibility requires the collaboration of medical doctors, psychologists and teachers and mandates liaison between Health, Social and Educational Ministries.

A special issue of Esprit (1965) reports a 1963 study of Delinquent Youth. Of 2,960 youth reported, 1,339 were in residential institutions and 380 lived with parents. Of 2,267 youth "in moral danger," 658 were institutionalized and 364 lived with parents. The remainder were given outpatient counsel and advisement. The overwhelming majority were boys and most were from the over populated urban areas.

The Mentally Retarded

There is a paucity of literature on educational programs for the retarded. The famous diagnostic clinic in Paris headed by Zazzo is highly

reputable throughout Europe. Most available reports on the retarded are written by physicians and/or psychologists, although Dr. R. Lafon reported in the 1967 International Congress on Mental Deficiency, in September, 1967, in Montpellier, France (personal notes), a growing concern in the education of the profoundly and moderately retarded and the formation of a Corps of specialist teachers. Friends who have visited and studied European programs report the impression that France looks to Belgium, Switzerland, and the Netherlands for leadership in educational programing. Diagnostic evaluations seem to follow developmental trends probably reflective of Piaget's influence in Europe.

It is interesting to note that, of three recent international conferences with special education participation, no French educator was featured as a speaking contributor.

Summary

France, like most countries of the world, is in the midst of sweeping educational reforms. The problems of implementing legislative provisions for special education programs and services to meet the needs of exceptional children and youth are the same that beset most countries of the world. General features of reform repeat themselves across the national boundaries of Europe as they do across state and regional boundaries in America wherever special education programs and services replace or supplement regular instruction. Common denominator needs include recruitment and preparation of professional specialist personnel, and provision of facilities, equipment, and supportive services sufficient in number and quality to insure educational opportunity and experience appropriate to the needs and capacities of all exceptional persons. It is clear that France is making definitive progress in living up to the reforms outlined in 1959 under the Fifth Republic. But it is equally clear that in this country, like other advanced countries of the world, special education is still at the most primitive stages in realizing its stated goals.

As a professional association we might well profit by the caution called for by Ignacy Goldberg at the Montpellier Charter Congress on the Scientific Study of Mental Deficiency (1967). He warned of the dangers of comparing educational programs in the absence of well defined criteria for such comparisons. The limitations of time and exposure to programs and the lack of cultural perspective in the total effort of a region or a nation seriously reduces the value and worth of much of the international effort in recent years. At the same time the scope and dimensions of our common problems makes international cooperation in special education a mandate of our times.

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ABSTRACT

A SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF THE MENTALLY RETARDED CHILD
IN TEN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

by

Jason W. McCallum

The information for this survey was determined from observation of facilities and from presentations by senior educational administrators. The format of the paper includes a general review of definition, educational settings, curriculum and teacher training.

Definition

There is much variability among countries in their definition of the educable mentally retarded (EMR). IQ scores of between 50 and 65 appear to separate the educable and trainable groups. An upper limit of about IQ 80 was indicated as separating this group from the child who would receive regular classroom instruction. The communist countries emphasize a multi-disciplinary approach with medical specialists, psychologists and educators being involved. This approach has great value for research, but function and performance must be the basic criteria in placing a child in a given program.

Educational Settings

In Europe, as in North America, the issue of whether special classes should be in regular schools or special schools has not been settled. In England, Germany, Czechoslovakia, the USSR and the Netherlands, education is undertaken exclusively in special day schools. Class sizes range between 12 and 20 students. Advances are apparent in preschool public education beginning at age three, particularly in the communist countries.

Curriculum

Primary skills with varying emphasis on visual motor training through crafts and games probably form the core for all of the early programs. There is a varied degree of stress on academic subjects. Antithetical situations existed in London as compared to Bonn, where the latter stressed much academic work in the upper grades.

Specific curriculum is established in three communist and in two Scandinavian countries. Communist countries also supply texts, teaching manuals and materials. In the Scandinavian countries the curriculum is to be used only as a guide or norm to approach, whereas the other curricula appeared to be considered as directions.

Vocational training is provided by most countries, either in vocational schools or in the senior grades of the elementary program. Sheltered workshops also are fostered, particularly in the Netherlands. Generally, however, the extent and quality of vocational training is as varied as that found in North America.

Teacher Training

Teacher education of the mentally handicapped has been and still is an uneven pursuit. While North American teachers appear dissatisfied with their training, there appears to be less concern expressed by their European

counterparts. The latter possibly have more professional university training and have a much greater feeling of being "specialists" of exceptional children.

Discussion

The impression from the survey indicated a strong feeling about the needs of children and a desire to meet them through facilities and curriculum. A prescribed curriculum to be used as a norm might have value, particularly when it is recognized how often the special teacher yearns for some guidelines. The most encouraging observation involved a commitment on the part of educators to provide fuller educational and training experiences both before, during and after compulsory school attendance.

SPECIAL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

by

Ronald Gulliford

Following is an outline of the organization of special education in England and a consideration of a number of areas in which international cooperation could be productive.

Types of Special Education

Present arrangements for special education stem from the Education Act of 1944 which gave the local education authorities (of large towns and counties) the duty of finding out which children in their area suffer from any disability of mind or body and of insuring that they received special education in special schools or in other ways. Ten categories of handicapped children were specified: blind, partially sighted, deaf, partially hearing, educationally subnormal, epileptic, maladjusted, physically handicapped, speech defective and delicate. (The gifted are not included because we consider them to be well cared for by grammar schools.)

The educationally subnormal correspond to the American term educable retarded. The definition of educationally subnormal was deliberately made a broad one, referring to children who were educationally retarded on account of limited ability or because of other conditions, in order to get away from rigid IQ criteria and from the prewar certification of pupils as mentally defective or feebleminded. The result is that they range in IQ from 50 to 85 (sometimes higher), and there is a lot of consideration given to deciding what criteria should apply.

The maladjusted category was a new one in 1944. Their education was first mainly given in small boarding schools which combined a family atmosphere with a therapeutic approach. Day schools and classes have been developing, although they provision does not match the need. The majority of epileptic children are of course in ordinary schools, but there are six schools for severe problems requiring specialized education and medical treatment. The majority of speech defective children are in ordinary schools but there are several boarding schools for aphasic children. There is a wide range of day, boarding and hospital schools for the physically handicapped.

Of possible interest is the delicate category. Originally open air

schools for delicate children were started in the early 1900's for children whose health had suffered from poor social and health conditions in industrial urban areas. With improved health and welfare the number of such children has declined and the vacant places have been used as an extra facility for children with a variety of conditions such as minor maladjustment, educational retardation, social disadvantages, or other needs not appropriately met by other special schools.

Trainable retarded children are at present the responsibility of local health departments who provide for them in training centers; others are in hospitals for the subnormals. There are moves afoot which make it likely that the trainable will come under Education and become a part of special education. There has already been a trend to set up assessment classes for borderline retarded children of 5 to 8 years as a means of deciding the degree of educability before placement in training center of special school.

Delinquent children may be sent to boarding schools approved and supervised by the Home Office. Most large towns have remedial teaching, home teaching and language teaching for immigrants.

Two supporting services are the School Health Service, which plays as important part in the identification of handicapped children an in child guidance, school psychology and speech therapy (the latter two laboring from shortage or personnel), and school welfare services; and the Youth Employment services.

The larger authorities (London, Birmingham, Manchester, etc.) provide schools and classes for each of the handicaps but areas with smaller populations may arrange for some groups of handicapped children to go to schools in neighboring authorities or to boarding schools; of the 76,466 pupils in special schools, 20,898 are in boarding schools. The majority of schools are run and financed by local authorities out of local taxes supplemented by government grants. There are a number of schools run by private organizations (especially for blind, physically handicapped and maladjusted children), although the fees are paid by local education authorities. The vast majority of pupils are educated at public expense; there is very little private special schooling. Medical examinations and treatment are provided by the School Health Service and by the National Health Service.

Special training and certification for teachers is only obligatory at present for teachers of the deaf and the blind, although many colleges and universities provide training courses in special education. Training consists of a year of full time study three to five years after initial teacher qualification, with the teachers being paid full salary by their local authorities. Just under half the teachers in special education are men.

Issues for Cooperative Planning

The population is small enough and the geography compact enough to aim at comprehensive provision for all who really need special education. One of the questions in which we could fruitfully cooperate internationally is how much special provision to make for different groups of handicapped children. The survey by the Wood Committee in 1929 is acknowledged to be one of the more reliable estimates of the prevalence of mental defect. At present Professor Tizard of London University is directing an interdisciplinary research in which whole age groups of children in the Isle of Wight are carefully screened for disabilities--not only the major ones but the less obvious disabilities

affecting learning. Information from this study should provide a basic measure of the minimum provision needed in other areas. For example, in this relatively rural area with few large towns he has come up with an incidence of maladjustment of 6 percent.

But it is one thing to know the expected incidence of disability; it is another thing to set up the machinery for ensuring early identification. Public health departments of local authorities already operate observation registers listing all children born at risk and these are followed up by pediatricians and infant welfare doctors. This increases the chances of detecting sensory and physical handicaps as early as possible in the preschool period. We need to develop a second tier of identificatory procedures in the first school years in order to ensure the early detection of disabilities which become apparent in an educational setting. Present procedures used in Britain are routine school medical examinations, visual and audiometric screening and referral by headteachers (school principals). But we know that some children are identified much later than they should be; there are variations in the competence of schools to identify children and there are variations between areas, notably between the North and South of England. In England, children start school at five years of age, and by the time they reach the age of seven, teachers have a fairly intimate knowledge of them. It would be useful to develop a systematic use of teachers' observations of their pupils supplemented by a sample of children's performances on several critical tasks in order to identify children who are obviously going to need special help and those who are likely to need special help. It seems especially important to identify educable retarded children, maladjusted children and children with learning difficulties. Many school systems do in fact screen children at about age 8, but it would be preferable to screen them by the end of the seventh year. In England, it is unlikely that there will be enough experts with the time to perform this initial screening but with professional guidance, the teachers' contribution to this process could be made more systematic, objective, and reliable. In a recent survey of 11,000 seven year olds, headteachers were asked to specify whether in their opinion the child needed some form of special education. The teachers had no difficulty in classifying 5 percent as likely to need special help and were undecided about another 3.5 percent.

A second issue that lends itself to international cooperation is the organization of special education. The English system is based on the special school. Thus 45,000 educationally subnormal children attend special schools and this represents 0.7 percent of the total school population of children from 5 to 16. There is a larger number of retarded children receiving some form of special teaching in ordinary schools but these arrangements are less well organized and supervised. There are special classes in ordinary schools for partially sighted, partially hearing, maladjusted, and delicate children. However, there is an important need for special schools in a system of special education as a center where a variety of resources and specialties can be focused. In England, the need is felt to develop a special class system complementary to special schools, and this is one area in which American experience would be helpful. A related problem is how to ensure the satisfactory integration of the exceptional child into ordinary schools and regular classes. We all pay lipservice to the belief that wherever possible the handicapped child should be integrated, but it is not so easy to ensure that the school and the teachers have sufficient insight, knowledge and the appropriate attitudes to do this adequately.

One of the problems which confronts special educators at the present time is the many children who don't fit neatly into official classifications. Research into disability distinguishes various neurological disabilities,

clumsy children, language disorders, autistic children and other kinds of specific disorders, sometimes seen as separate groups from the major handicaps, and sometimes as problems occurring in all of them. Distinct educational programs and environments are specified for them; parent pressure groups add to the demand. If a country is trying to develop a comprehensive system of special education and its resources are strained to provide for the major needs, just how far should it go in differentiating provision for subgroups of exceptionality? Maybe the answer depends on the existing method of organization, and within special schools perhaps it is possible to meet special needs by setting up classes. Perhaps also the answer depends on demographic factors, and it may be possible in large urban areas to cater for many distinct needs, but in thinly populated areas special classes and schools will have to continue to cater for a spectrum of disability by individualizing treatment as far as they can. In England, this problem is before us in the educationally subnormal schools which inevitably include the socially disadvantaged, the maladjusted and retarded, the neurologically impaired, the borderline trainable, the non-communicating child, and children with mild physical and sensory disabilities. The question of the possible value of separate schools for the cerebral palsied and for spina bifida children is also under discussion. There is a distinct trend in English thinking towards the notion of a comprehensive special school which provides for a variety of handicaps, and for more liaison and interchange between specialists in different areas. There is need for much discussion of such issues which are very relevant to the situation of countries wh re special educational development is just getting under way.

Another issue for cooperation is in planning preschool education for exceptional children. It would be superfluous to argue the case for early education of the handicapped. In England there is a fair provision for the preschool deaf and for the physically handicapped. For a long time English pre nursery schools (run publicly for children between the ages of three and five) have taken a number of handicapped children, especially the emotionally disturbed and those with delayed language and speech. Day nurseries run by the Health Department have also taken a few children, including the mentally retarded. There is strong public pressure for public nursery schools to be provided much more extensively, especially for socially disadvantaged children. Also middle class parents have banded together and are running their own play groups, often including a handicapped child. We also have a preschool specifically for handicapped children acting as a diagnostic center and counseling service. These developments suggest other possibilities for the highly desirable preschool education of exceptional children. This again is a growing point in special education in which international interchange would be beneficial.

There are of course many other issues in curriculum planning and special methods worthy of cooperation, and the idea of international cooperation in planning special education could be a fruitful one. There is nothing more stimulating to thought that finding that someone else does something different from you--unless it is trying to unravel how something which appears to be same in two countries (like deafness!) is yet different. As far as Britain is concerned, we already make much use of American textbooks and research reports. It is to be wished however that there were more interchanges between personnel such as those offered by the CEC conventions; that is one reason we of the Association for Special Education were glad to welcome a large contingent at our 1966 Conference in London (as well as a contingent from Russia). But conference interchange is not enough nor is communication between University personnel. There could be more reciprocal visits between administrators and teachers. Also, it would be helpful to know more about European special education. There surely would be benefit in more thorough comparison of the

ways different countries tackle similar problems.

There are, however, some important qualifications to make about the values of international cooperation in special education. One can't really understand another system without having real understanding of the sociocultural differences, the different political and administrative framework, the history of the educational system and particularly its aims and general philosophy. For example, the amount that we in England can learn from what Americans are doing in compensatory education is open to question. England certainly has socially disadvantaged children and some of their problems are comparable. But, one difficulty is to assess how similar the problem really is in social and educational terms, and another is to assess how far American methods and techniques are applicable in a different cultural and educational setting. Certainly, the evaluation of different systems of special education is an important field of study, in the light of all the relevant differences between societies. Comparative Special Education would be not just an academic exercise but a valuable foundation for the inevitable expansion of special education in undeveloped countries.

AN EVALUATION OF SOME INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS USED IN A CLASSROOM FOR BEHAVIORALLY DISTURBED CHILDREN

by

Christine Walken

The Engineered Learning Project (ELP), a US Office of Education supported program, has as its major objective the development of procedures for identifying and treating behaviorally disturbed children within the school setting. The program has a behavior modification frame or reference, and is designed to yield information on whether economical, efficient procedures can be developed which will allow school personnel to identify behaviorally disturbed children and modify their behavior within a reasonable amount of time.

This paper presents an appraisal of some of the instructional materials that have been used within the project classroom.

Academic production and its relationship to behavior in the classroom cannot be over emphasized. Teachers are not going to see good, academically oriented behaviors from students who are unable, because of poor skills or lack of ability, to get rewards in the form of grades, recognition, or praise. The Engineered Learning Project staff members have talked about the need to get better reinforcers built into the regular classroom; but perhaps the reinforcers available to us are good enough, and it is the way in which they are dispensed that needs to be questioned. Teachers must learn to use them properly (as social and token reinforcers), and the academic work must be such that it allows every student to receive payoff from the work itself. It is disheartening, to say the least, to see a student's behavior within the ELP classroom gradually change, as a result of appropriate reinforcement and instructional materials, only to have him returned to an environment where the availability of positive reinforcers is often limited. When he returns to this environment his behavior goes unnoticed unless it is objectionable.

Experimental Learning Project Classroom Procedure

The academic work assigned the students in the ELP classroom was prescribed on the basis of the results of achievement tests and a period of individual work with each student, to determine the areas of greatest weakness. Work for each day was assembled in subject folders, which were on the student's desk at the beginning of each day. Each could see exactly what he was expected to accomplish. When a student completed an assignment his work was checked, and he was helped to correct any errors before points were given. Each piece of work had to be completed and checked before he went on to the next assignment Points for programed work were given for working for a specified length of time. Assignments were short, to make possible more frequent payoff, but were gradually lengthened as behaviors improved.

The problem of the demand on the teacher of correcting and providing reinforcement for academic work could theoretically be solved through the use of programed instruction. These programs, however, are still in the early stages of development. There are now on the market many poor attempts at programing,

but there are also some good programs that can teach well. A careful evaluation of materials should precede their purchase, but sometimes trying them out on the students is necessary to ascertain the merits of a program.

In an article entitled "Why We Need Teaching Machines," Skinner (1962) says:

> Whether by intention or necessity, teachers have been less given to teaching than to holding students responsible for learning...The student looks, listens, and answers questions, (and incidentally learns) as a gesture of avoidance or escape...The birch rod and cane are gone, but their place has been taken by equally effective punishments (criticism, possibly ridicule, failure) used in the same way; the student must learn or else.
>
> Byproducts of aversive control in education range from truancy, early dropouts, and school vandalism to inattention, "mental fatigue," forgetting and apathy. It does not take a scientific analysis to trace these to their sources in education practice.

The observations Skinner made about the effects of aversive control are well known to us, since nearly every sympton he mentioned is within the behavior repertoire of our group.

Programs Considerations

Of the programs used in our project class, some do measure up to the hopes Skinner has for them, in that they require a minimum of teacher "presence," begin very simply, and develop skill logically and systematically with reinforcement immediately supplied with each step in learning. Good programs also reduce the teacher's time consuming job of trying to dig up or develop materials herself and organize them in a logical sequence. On the other hand, some poorly written programs do not move in a "no steps missed" fashion, and others must be neglecting the reinforcement ingredient, because students become quickly bored by them. Some programs do not teach at all. They are merely interestingly laid out, student corrected material that the student could not have used if he did not already possess the skills they claim to be teaching.

There is not a predetermined pace at which a student should go through a program. If attention stops, so does the program, as opposed to the falling behind that results from a student's inattention to a lecture. However, our subjects initially were apt to just sit and look at the program, or to try "sneaking" in order to fill in the answers without every looking at the text and questions. Whether or not this was due to what Skinner referred to as apathy or mental fatigue, it seemed that some behaviors were prerequisites to using a program. So, until some initial working behaviors were established through consistent payoff on more traditional materials, the programs with one exception, were not as effective as was hoped.

Another drawback in using some presently available programed instruction is that many require a good deal of reading. For instance, a math program appropriate for a boy functioning at a second grade level in that subject may require third or fourth grade reading ability. Often a student who is markedly under achieving in math will be doing even less well in reading. If a teacher has to supply every other word in a program's discussion of arithmetic, she is almost as involved as she would be if she were teaching the lesson herself.

Programed materials are relatively expensive, and unless used in a way that will permit repeated use, the cost of book form programs for large groups may be prohibitive in public school settings. Programs used in machines, of course, can be used many times. Some machines are excellent, but others are flimsy and easily broken, especially by the kind of student we are dealing with.

Evaluation and Discussion of Programed Materials and Procedures

Following is a discussion of some of the programed and student corrected materials we have used, with varying degrees of success, with students in the ELP classroom.

Sullivan Associates Programmed Reading Series, McGraw Hill. This excellent program was used most successfully. It is a thoroughly developed program that can actually teach reading skills, beginning with a prereader, and ending with selections from classical myths at a sixth grade plus reading level. It is suggested that the program be used in conjunction with other materials and methods. The books are accompanied by film strips and hard back books that reinforce the vocabulary. Reading gains made during the eight weeks the program was used were from three months to one year, as measured by the Durrell and Gates tests. Plastic sheets were used to allow repeated use of the programs so that the student can sponge his responses off the sheet. After completing several self corrected pages of work, the student does a "test page." When finished, he raises his hand to have the teacher check his work. This gives the teacher an opportunity to check the student's progress through the program.

The Teaching Machines Incorporated (TMI) Grolier Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division Programs. Used in the Min-Max teaching machine, these were less than satisfactory for our particular purposes. The students were quickly bored by the programs. The machines are made of plastic and are easily damaged. They are too large to be kept on the desk of the student, necessitating movement whenever they are to be used. A TMI Programed Text presenting the same materials is more easily used in the classroom.

California Test Bureau's "Lessons for Self-Instruction in the Basic Skills." These materials range in subject matter from elementary math to "Getting Meaning from Reading." The boys used these booklet form programs with enthusiasm, but the lessons dealing with basic skills really did not seem to teach the skills but did give a novel form of practice in arithmetic. They are "branching" programs in which an incorrect response leads to a review of the misunderstood problem. The reinforcements for a correct or an incorrect response even have "social" earmarks, since they are signalled by a smiling or a frowning face. Student responses are written in separate answer booklets which can be reordered and are indexpensive.

The Cyclo-Teacher. This World Book Company program series and machine offers lessons from simple math to a fairly advanced (grade seven) level of science and vocabulary lessons. The machines are well made. The programs are suitable for extra, or "free time," but the lessons do not go thoroughly enough into any one area. Also, the machines are noisy in use and disturbing to students doing quiet work.

Educational Development Laboratory's Study Skills Library. This is a series of study sets on science and social studies topics. The reading levels are controlled in each set. They consist of study pamphlets, in which, for example, there may be information about "Simple Machines." On the reverse side

of each of the booklets are questions, which are answered on a separate answer sheet provided in the set. The student can then select the appropriate answer card to score his own work. The students have used these materials with enthusiasm.

Geography of the United States. This Behavioral Research Laboratories development consists of programed tests and map booklets. Programs are available on the geography of the Central, East and West areas of the U.S. Students in our class who could read at a fourth grade or better reading level used the programs. We found the program to be complete, and of high interest to those students.

Programmed Problem Solving, by Ginn and Company, is appropriate for students who can use arithmetic facts, but who have difficulty with verbal arithmetic problems. The program can be read by students with a low reading level--as low as high first or second grade. The programed test is placed in a plastic binder which has a sliding piece which covers the answer column. Students who seemed to find arithmetic especially aversive could usually be interested in this program because of its simplicity and "nonmath appearance."

Webster Company's Classroom Reading Clinic. This is a collection of materials which students can use independently. These were of special value to us since the study card lessons begin at a 2.5 grade level of reading difficulty, yet are of interest to a sixth grade boy. After completing a short story, the student selects the appropriate answer card to correct his work. The "clinic" also contains paper back novels which the better readers would actually read rather than take free time.

"Dr. Spello" and "Conquests in Reading" Workbooks. These workbooks come as part of the clinic and furnish work in phonics, sentence construction and comprehension skills. This is an excellent set of materials for use in an individualized program.

The Study-Scope. This is an efficient program, and a favorite of the students in our program. The Programs are designed to develop skill in number facts in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. For each arithmetic process, there are eight separate designs, each one progressively more difficult. To use, the student slips a program sheet into a plastic tube. The student looks at the equation, and responds by either writing on a response blank, saying the answer, or thinking his answer. The answer window is on the other side of the tube. The students use the honor system to check their own responses, or may use the Study Scope as a member of a team, in which students check each other's responses.

SRA Reading Laboratories. These were appropriate for the needs of our students. The Reading for Understanding Junior was particularly suited to the needs of our poorest readers. The reading selections are brief and are made up of short sentences. This set of material allows for frequent reinforcement for completed assignments, which is especially important during the early phase of a student's treatment in the program.

The materials described in this paper were all obtained for use and evaluation through the Northwest Regional Special Education Materials Center for Handicapped Children and Youth, located on the University of Oregon campus.

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ABSTRACT

THE LABORATORY METHOD OF PSYCHODIAGNOSIS OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

by

Luciano L'Abate

Increasing demands for psychodiagnostic services and manpower shortage have produced inadequate solutions in the evaluation of exceptional children (shortforms, incomplete test batteries, limited interaction with an examiner, etc.). These shortcomings are compounded by increasing costs and inefficiency of operations. The number of children now being evaluated is small in comparison to the number of exceptional children in need of evaluation.

The laboratory method is presented as a possible way of meeting manpower shortages, increasing costs, inefficiency, and lastly the wide gap between services and research with exceptional children. The components of this method are: (a) standard test batteries sytematically derived to evaluate four major heterogeneous variables (intellectual functioning, visual motor dysfunctions, learning deficits, and emotional adjustment) at various age levels (2-11, 3-6, 5-11, 6-8-11, 9-14-11), (b) these batteries are in the hands of specially trained and supervised assistants who administer and score all tests at a technical level of skill, and (c) these subprofessionals are supervised by a Ph.D. clinical psychologist who is responsible for the interpretation and reporting of test results at a professional level. Examples of such laboratories at St. Louis Children's Hospital, the Crippled Children Service of Georgia Department of Health, Grady Memorial Hospital and Georgia State College in Atlanta are presented in the light of their advantages for: (a) decrease in costs of operation, (b) increase in efficiency, and (c) unification of service with research.

STIMULATING SPEECH IN THE EDUCATIONALLY DEPRIVED

by

Don G. Sandy

The children of this generation are the object of an intensified search to identify all of their special needs through the full span of birth to adulthood. This search is followed by the equally important challenge of meeting these needs. The relatively newest special group of children that is presently the focus of much concern and controversy is referred to variously as: the culturally deprived or disadvantaged child, the poverty child, the inner city child, the language deprived child, the legally deprived child, the potential

juvenile delinquent, or the educationally deprived child.

As in the past, with groups of children identified as having special needs, few will agree as to what to call them. From different frames of reference, each of the designations is inadequate in some way since each suggests an inaccurate generalization. The public is left with the impression that the children are the same, which unavoidably and unduly stereotypes them. So, like frogs jumping from one lily pad to the next, the searchers continue looking for a new term that enjoys freedom from severe criticism for a moment, although we know that its popularity will be as short lived as last year's fashions.

Presently, many professional groups are immersed in early childhood searching and programing. There is a substantial block of individuals who assert that if we do not start early in the preschool years we are too late. This assumption has been the impetus for many types of preschool programs operating across the country. These programs are quite important but should not overshadow the need to improve strategies during the school years--which simply means that all the years of a child's educational experiences are significant.

Educationally Deprived

Since, for this presentation, this large population of children is referred to as the educationally deprived, it is necessary to define the term. In general, the educationally deprived refers to children from lower socio-economic areas who are not prepared with helpful attitudes or skills for school. These children have had little opportunity to develop and expand the language proficiencies mandatory for successful academic performance in our schools as they are presently functioning.

The term educationally deprived is already under fire. To say that the children in the elementary grades of your school are educationally deprived is in essence a statement of self condemnation. Some individuals might rather say that the children are "educational readiness deprived."

These few statements are offered to identify some of the dimensions of the controversy. Unfortunately, the scope of this paper does not permit a fuller exploration of the implications of labeling. Therefore, attention will be directed to the dimension of speech, and comments will be restricted to the undeveloped oral language skills of the educationally deprived, particularly those skills we might term "school language" or formal language.

In addition, some of the aspects of the process of speech and language acquisition and the special problems of development for the educationally deprived will be characterized, and a sequence of activities that might be used for the elementary school age child in the classroom will be described.

Speech and Educational Deprivation

The statement that the educationally deprived are predominantly language deprived does not mean that these children have no viable language modes, that they do not express themselves creatively, or that they have language disorders in the sense that there is an etiology of hereditary, organic, or pathological factors. It can mean that they simply have had inadequate opportunity to learn and to practice the language patterns that are required in order to succeed in school oriented tasks.

The major press to change these conditions has come from the growing block of individuals planning and implementing preschool programs, with an emphasis on enriching the preprimary years with language experiences. These programs in style have extended all the way from traditional preschool models, to a new Montessori focus, to the highly structured programs characterized by intensive drill oriented teaching of language. Most, if not all, of these programs are based on the "early start" assumption.

The basis for the "early start" attitude and supporting reasons for its definition are not unfounded. Let us look at some of the bases for this line of reasoning in reference to the normal process of speech acquisition, and its development in the lower and middle classes.

Research shows that language is first shaped by the parents. Its tone, syntax, sound patterns, and vocabulary are profoundly influenced by these early verbal interactions. Also, the content of the first verbalizations are pervasively influenced by the values of the parents. Then gradually, within the child's expanding reality, the speech is intermeshed with group identification. The group values in turn shape the speech and language patterns. The unfolding speech style of the child intimately regulates his behavior, and this style is critical in terms of his successful interaction in the home and in his immediate peer group. The problem for the language deprived child begins when he extends himself into the school and eventually into the larger community. This is when his particular style becomes handicapping for him.

Research shows that talking for the sake of talking is valued much more in the middle class home than in the lower class home. Because the language in the lower class home tends to center around basic needs such as food, security, and survival, there are fewer pleasantries to be discussed. In general, the parents from the lower class homes prefer not to talk about their substandard conditions. Since these matters are not a primary concern in the middle class home, there is much more time in the day for intellectual pursuits, exploring books and magazines, having discussions, and taking trips.

Referring to the lower class child, Crow and Murray (1966) report:

> The language used in the home by the parents is not supportive to the child on entrance into school, where he must express thoughts or clarify concepts. His language patterns make it difficult for him to relate facts for the purpose of making abstractions. By and large, lower class children tend to use language acquired in their listening to parents, in their reading, and in their other out of school environment.

Another distinction between the two groups in terms of the flexibility of their language code becomes evident when we see that speech develops with a delicate balance of creative expression and conformity. If the child is not told that certain ways of saying things are more acceptable than others, he does not become discriminating, and he feels that the "how" of language usage is not important as long as the desired result is achieved. John and Goldstein (1964), in a study of social context of language acquisition, found that overcrowded homes and the absence of feedback in dialogue with adults resulted in incorrect pronunciation, poor grammar, and faulty word association. Chukovsky (1966) reminds us that a major task of education is to train children to achieve adult levels of good speech. He says further that if the whimsical vocabulary is preserved in a child's speech, his linguistic development will be retarded.

With the overall differences in verbal output and directive feedback,

the middle class child accumulates many more "flying hours" for developing school oriented language proficiencies. The middle class child identifies with the broader world and has more to talk about, while the lower class child's world and breadth of verbal output become restricted. Loretan and Urans (1966) state:

> If the school is to be effective, and if these youngsters are not to be discharged into the ever-larger group of unskilled, unemployables, then meaningful, expressive, and receptive language training must become a conscious part of curriculum organization. Inability to speak and understand standard English can make social mobility in our society almost impossible.

It becomes evident that the child's potential for increasing his talking skills will help him to increase the breadth of his contacts and to expand his world, since the essence of culture is considered by sociologists and anthropologists to be preserved and transmitted through its language. No one can argue that the reality of the 20th century is not universality and internationalism, for better or for worse, and that all children should be prepared for it.

With these few thoughts in mind, we need to remember that no child learns to talk in isolation, that other human beings must be stimulating the child with speech, and that this kind of interaction is necessary through all of childhood. We may take the position that when the child enters school. the speech patterns are so established that they are irrevocably unalterable, or we can take the position as teachers that we can build on the language the child knows and help him to learn to speak in ways that will mean greater mobility in the larger society.

Importance of Stimulating Speech in the Classroom

We need to remind ourselves that to increase language proficiency, the process of listening and learning to understand speech is the first and quite crucial phase, but it must be followed by verbal output. It is known that reception and understanding of language is less a problem than talking for the educationally deprived child. There can be many explanations for this, but it is the opinion of some educators that television has been instrumental in developing language reception, but is handicapping for speech since there is no verbal exchange in this one way communication process.

Consequently, it should be remembered that the stimulation of speech needs to be followed by reciprocal verbal responses. The amount and type will be dependent first on the child's intelligence, personality, and native linguistic skills, regardless of class membership, and second on how the teacher feels about talking. If a teacher believes that children should be seen and not heard, and if he is not verbally oriented, it will be difficult to encourage more talking from the students.

In stimulating speech, it is unrealistic to attempt to change total speech patterns. It is probably more realistic and practical simply to plan on adding to them. To do this, it is necessary to challenge the children to use what they already have, and to systematically stimulate further linguistic growth.

I should like to suggest a three phase process of: (a) encouraging verbal output, (b) using the present level, exercising it, so to speak, and

(c) giving the children a variety of talking experiences to apply the new learning.

At this point, it might be well to mention some "do nots." Telling children that they need to speak correct English, trying to teach formal rules of grammar, or trying to teach reading at the same time are questionable and ineffectual. Placing most of the correction time on getting the children not to say "yeah," or other incidental slang words will probably be self defeating. The children should not feel that something will be taken away from them while engaged in the speaking activities; they should feel that they are learning new ways to express their feelings and ideas.

Following the three phases of the activity outlined above, the following are suggested ways in which the teacher might stimulate speech in a class of third grade children.

Suggested Speech Activity

The major goal of the activity is directed toward developing oral language or speech.

To stimulate speech, it is suggested that the teacher use magazines as the basic stimulus material, since they are inexpensive and have clear and colorful photographs of actual individuals and situations. For this particular activity, the usual bill of fare of pictures of animals, elves, and fantastic creatures is not preferred. It should be noted that the magazines need to be carefully selected since certain ones would be inappropriate. Magazines such as Look, Life, or Post are preferable for the pictures in general.

Phase I. After passing out the magazines (hopefully each child would have his own copy), the children should be encouraged to look through them and verbalize spontaneously about them. At this time, the teacher will have an opportunity to note each child's impressions of what he sees and in what way he can verbalize about the pictures. Also, this is an opportunity to note particular differences in vocabulary and syntax. The teacher should ask only open ended questions, such as "Tell me what interests you," "Let's talk about any pictures you see." (Some teachers may want to remove certain pictures before the activities if they seem objectionable.

During this drawing out phase the teacher should look for creative, spontaneous responses and have as many children participating as possible. If a particular child tends to be nonverbal, the teacher may say, "What picture do you like?" "What can you tell me about it?" If the child does not respond, the teacher may say, "What can you name in the picture?" The goal is always to elicit some verbal response.

Phase II. This phase may be approached with the children as a game with some degree of verbal competitiveness that third grade children enjoy. The emphasis is on building and using vocabulary classified as nouns, verbs, and adjectives, following a process of verbalizations from the simple to the more complex. The length of time spent on the phase as well as the whole activity depends on the teacher, but it is suggested that the period at first be no more than five minutes, and then gradually increased. The following is a suggested sequence:

1. "Can you name one thing on the page (chosen by the child?" To another child; "Can you name two or three things?" There are many variations that can be

used. Another possibility is to have two children compete to see who can name the most. The purpose, in whatever variation is used, is to build vocabulary and to increase the quickness of response. The children should be encouraged to realize that things can have many different names, and the teacher should not reinforce the impression that something has only one name.

2. "Find and name all of the things that move." The children look freely through the magazines and explain and discuss their choices. Other variations could be: "Find and name things that cannot move unless someone moves them." "Find things that grow." "Name things that make a sound, things we can ride in, things that will burn, things that are too heavy to pick up, etc."

3. Have a child name something in a picture. Then ask the children to find pictures of things that are smaller. For example, one child names a car. The other children need to find a picture of smaller objects, such as a chair, a man, and so forth.

4. "What can we find that's happening in the magazine?" The children look through the magazine for action pictures. A child raises his hand and holds up a picture. He tells the page number and then says what is happening. The teacher encourages the child to phrase his remarks in a natural way. The criterion should not be that he phrase the remark in complete sentences necessarily. This could lead to superficial and irregular phraseology for oral language and could create a disinterest in continuing. What one child does not say, another will likely be able to add to the remark to rephrase it in a more acceptable form.

5. Role playing with the pictures. The teacher should ask the children to use their imaginations and describe what happened prior to what is happening in a picture, or they might try to articulate what will happen next. The responses may be logical or creative. Another eliciting remark by the teacher might be, "What are the people talking about?" Some children who are reading will respond more accurately if there are captions. Others will have to guess. The purpose of the activity is to get a variety of verbalizations and to approach the materials problematically.

In summary, the overall purpose of this phase of the activity is to develop upward categorization, which simply means that after the children learn new vocabulary they can group it under broader headings. For example, running, jumping, swimming, and walking are all forms of physical activity, or ways of getting to another place. After each activity period, the teacher should note what particular problems the children were having and focus as much as possible on some of the problems in future activity periods. A major goal throughout is to build more complex oral language responses related to real life objects and situations that the children will be likely to encounter in the broader world.

Phase III. This phase may occur immediately after Phase II, or the teacher may elect to choose one activity from this section for another period in the day or the week.

1. Scrapbooks. The children would enjoy making scrapbooks using the pictures from old magazines that are no longer used for Phase II. The pictures may be cut out and placed in the scrapbook according to: free choice, classification of objects or situations, etc. The scrapbooks are useful for conversation periods and for further reinforcement of new vocabulary.

2. Puppets. The children can make puppets to act out small scenes. Even though these are very useful for encouraging verbalizations, they frequently can degenerate into a pure motor activity of hitting and clapping of hands unless the children are encouraged to speak for the puppets.

3. Creative Dramatics. Like puppets, creative dramatics can be limited unless the children discuss what they might say in the activity. The other problem is that the activity may be indulged in only by the most extroverted children who may need the activity the least.

4. Conversation. This can be related to a wide range of activities.

5. Picture Sequencing. Cartoons from the newspaper that can be essentially understood by what the characters are doing rather than what they are saying can be cut up and placed in different orders. The children can discuss why the orders are erroneous and can put the pictures into the correct sequence. The emphasis throughout is in putting the reasons for the sequence into words.

Again in connection with picture sequencing, Corbin and Crosby (1965) report a successful language experience for children. The children make a sequence of pictures on a roll of paper and place it in a frame. The pictures may be related to a trip or can be totally imaginative. Each child has an opportunity to narrate a series of pictures to strengthen his ability to recall and discuss a sequence.

Summary of the Three Phase Procedure

In Phase I, free discussion of magazines or selected pictures from magazines are used to encourage free spontaneous verbalizations. During this phase the teacher should identify particular difficulties of language expression.

Phase II elaborates on the magazine activity to build vocabulary and to develop more complex utterances of a nominal and actional quality.

In Phase III, a variety of speech and language activities are planned to utilize new leraning through puppetry, creative dramatics, conversation, and art activity.

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ADMINISTRATION

THE COOPERATIVE SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

by

Richard J. Kothera

Because of their highly individual needs, not all school age children are able to realize a maximum benefit from the established regular school curriculum. Physical, mental, and emotional differences are thus provided for by highly specialized and stylized programs referred to as special education. Many school districts throughout this country, because of population and financing, are unable to adequately provide for specialized needs. Through cooperation of a number of school districts, a well rounded program in special education may be offered these children. Cooperation among school districts extends not only to a verbal commitment, but to a legal, financial, and philosophical relationship as well. By combining the populations of a number of school districts as well as by multiple financing, the formation of multidistrict cooperatives in special education is feasible, practical, and of the utmost necessity in providing well rounded programs adequately staffed and populated, and in maintaining an administrative force for securing stability, equity, and educational responsibility in operation.

Need for Multidistrict Cooperatives

Because of their highly individual needs, not all school age children are able to realize maximum benefit from established regular school curriculum due to physical, mental, or emotional differences. Teachers cognizant of special needs, and of the methodology required to meet them, aid in the realization of human potential through special education services with resulting social adjustment and economic usefulness providing ample return for the investment made by the community in special education. Yet as this philosophy has developed over the years, it becomes apparent that only large school districts have the space, the personnel,and the fiscal stability necessary to establish and maintain well rounded special education programs. While the processes of unification and consolidation have expanded both scope and size of affected school districts, many are still not large enough to adequately maintain a complete program of special education. There exist unified Kindergarten through 12th grade school districts with fewer than 500 children. In some states in the southern portion of the Middle West and Southwest, areas are so sparsely populated it is almost an impossibility to establish and maintain more than a room for housing materials and a sympathetic teacher who attempts to "handle" the problems of those children which cannot be adequately approximated in the regular classroom. If the needs of these children are to be adequately served, specialized programs must be offered them. But at the same time, how is the small school district to care adequately for these needs which, because of lack of enrollment, create a tremendous financial burden for the school district? One means of countering this problem of small school districts, other than consolidation, is the cooperative program, whereby adjoining school districts use the services of special education personnel on the basis of mutual cooperative agreements.

Exemplary in this area are shared speech therapy and psychological services as well as programs for the mentally retarded. Many school districts today, unable to afford the highly specialized personnel utilized in special education programs, have joined together with one district maintaining the

paper work and the other school districts reimbursing on a time spent or per pupil cost basis. Yet, if two districts join together in an area such as has been suggested, the type of program resulting still does not adequately meet the needs of all special education children who potentially might enroll in either school district. Another most important question is the direction special education takes. Can two districts afford a director? None have in the past, except to place the responsibility upon a teacher or administrator already functioning full time in another capacity who may lack the sophistication necessary to blend policy, budget, personnel, and facilities to achieve the auspicious results possible in special education. Is there any means available to low enrolled districts that allow the establishment of total special education programs? Perhaps the best answer, unification and consolidation notwithstanding, is the multidistrict cooperative formed to join together enrollments of such size that, regardless of incidence, a total program is possible to meet the exceptionalities of the student population in addition to providing specialized administrative leadership essential to the maintenance and continued growth of the program.

Forming a Cooperative

Certain strategies and tactics are necessary to overcome the intial problems of forming a cooperative. Superintendents are known to be concerned about the loss of authority, financial insecurity, state laws, and such, and one must consider these very real problems of district administrators in establishing a cooperative program. First and foremost, the necessity for such a program and its potential benefits need to be presented. What basically is being established in a cooperative is a marriage in which divorce can be so punishing that it is almost an impossibility, if only from the standpoint of public relations. In the formation of our cooperative program in Kansas, we found much hesitancy on the part of superintendents to commit themselves because, at the time, we had little financial stability due to the initiation of a highly questionable foundation finance plan and the lack of permissive legislation directed towards the formation of cooperative programs. It took a certain amount of politicking, convincing, and propagandizing to get eleven superintendents on the same track.

First, we gained a philosophical agreement on the part of each superintendent that the means of meeting the children's needs were not being accomplished with our present form of "I'll send you my mentally retarded; you send me your emotionally disturbed and in June we'll figure out what we owe each other." We requested -- in fact demanded -- a commitment that the needs of all children must be met. Surveys were taken and the entire program discussed with our very capable state director, Dr. Jim Marshall, who greatly encouraged us. After four years of operation we can only say that the cooperation, encouragement, and understanding of our problems by our State Department made it possible for us to establish and maintain the cooperative.

The cooperative was formed via contract and contains basically four elements:

1. Ground rules used to establish and maintain the program such as: Who will sponsor the program? Who was eligible to participate? In our case, policy is established through a quasi board of education which we refer to as the board of directors.

2. Operations - this concerns the director of special education and

establishes duties and reimbursements as well as the hierarchy under which he operates.

3. Facilities - In the cooperative program the facilities are widely scattered and basically consist of free classrooms in elementary schools around the area. It establishes a rental plan for these classrooms which is paid for by the cooperative in terms of credit on a yearly bill.

4. Finance - the contract spells out the financial duties of the sponsoring district in regard to maintaining fiscal responsiblity for the cooperative and establishing administrative fees for the administration of the program and operational fees which basically reimburse teachers, teachers' aides, purchase equipment and materials.

All school districts who wish to become a part of the cooperative then enter into a legal contract with all other school districts for the establishment of the cooperative.

Did we have a law on the books which specifically allowed us to form a special education cooperative? The fact is that it was not until two years after the formation of our cooperative program that a few people questioned the legality of the cooperative, and a bill was sponsored in the Senate which allowed the formation of special education cooperatives. However, the program was legally established without a specific law for one good reason: the formation of a cooperative is a contractual obligation upon boards of education. The only legal basis necessary is that boards of education be legally endowed with the right to enter into contractual arrangements with other boards of education; or less specifically, that boards of education are allowed to enter into all types of contractual obligations. This law has been in Kansas for a long time and is used every year by boards of education; thus the necessity of establishing a special law perhaps will satisfy the purists, but it is not a legal necessity.

Establishing the Board of Directors

Once the contract was signed, the board of directors was established. There are several ways to establish a board of directors for cooperatives. It may be operated with lay citizens by appointment, with elected members representing boards of education, or with superintendents of cooperating school districts. In our case, the board of directors was made up of the superintendents of cooperating school districts with the idea that within several years this would slowly transfer to a board of directors composed of school board members representing the cooperative districts. At the present time, not one member of a board of education sits on the board of directors; the board is still made up of the superintendents of the cooperating districts. Our director seems to prefer it this way in that he feels his work is less difficult and the amount of sympathy he receives from fellow administrators is much greater than if the board of directors were made up of lay citizens or of members of cooperating school districts' boards of education. This may be true; however, it is important to consider the possibility that more rapid development in the cooperative would be possible with a board of directors who were not superintendents of schools. Because of the problem of vested interest and salary schedule competition, and since the cooperative is maintained as an entity unto itself, with the board of directors operating as a quasi board of education, perhaps it would be well to do away with that sometime shadow called vested interests by doing away with a board of directors human enough and competitive enough to hold down

one area in hopes of developing another. This situation will not always present itself but it is a potential problem in any cooperative, as well as in any special education program. Since special education, as a highly particularistic field of its own, could very well take a backseat to other programs and not be funded proportionately to support innovation, research, development, and investigation, and perhaps a cooperative program, as it is operated under a board of directors, it could possibly operate more freely with even more adequate financing by operating with a lay board.

Financing

Special education is more expensive per pupil than regular education, even if nothing more than enrollment is considered. In the past, special education for students who were orthopedically handicapped, blind, partially seeing, deaf, and hard of hearing required special equipment which was expensive and still is expensive today. However, the difference in cost between special and standard educational equipment is not what it was fifteen or twenty years ago, since regular education has entered into a purchasing era of electronic equipment. The classroom cost of equipment has increased tenfold over what we normally spent in the past, so the mechanical and electronic area of special education expenses have basically decreased in their relationship to the cost of maintaining a regular classroom, since the regular classroom is no longer devoid of its share of mechanical and electronic equipment. However, costs still accrue disproportionately due to special transportation, facilities, and the levy of administrative expenses as well as teachers salaries over a limited number of children. Yet this is offset by increased financing on the part of the state which in many areas provides additional funds for the maintenance of specialized educational programs. In addition to this, there are also incentive plans by various state departments which encourage the formation of a cooperative in special education. In Kansas, a district that takes students from another school district for the purpose of special education is paid $100 per out of district child. In a cooperative such as ours with an enrollment of approximately 260 students of which our district only furnished approximately 25, $23,500 immediately accrues to the cooperative because all students other than the sponsoring district's students are out of district.

Those who are familiar with Kansas and Kansas educators probably have heard a number of disparaging remarks made about its foundation plan and its 104 percent limit. In arriving at the formulation for this foundation plan, Kansas legislators must never have considered special education, and if they did, they deserve praise because they have funded the state very well for a cooperative program.

Money accrues to the cooperative in the state of Kansas in several ways. First, several thousand dollars per program is funded by the department of special education plus reimbursement for a proportionate amount of supplies and equipment. In addition to this, $100 is paid per out of district student in special education. Also, the state foundation program pays a certain sum of dollars per teacher to the school district and that sum of dollars is dependent upon the amount of training the teacher has, with the highest amount paid for the teacher with the most graduate hours. Educationally, teachers in special education are proportionately more highly trained than the average faculty. Also, our cooperative program transports all children and figures transportation from the home to the sponsoring district, and additional money accrues through this.

There are drawbacks to our foundation plan. Since the pupil teacher ratio is a factor, the ratio in a district could fall under the minimum standard mandated by the state, which means a reduction in foundation monies, and an increase in property tax. However, the cooperative maintains that the sponsoring district will only incur normal financial obligations acquired by cooperating districts, so it will not be hurt by a lowering of their pupil teacher ratio. We compile two budgets, one for the school district without the cooperative sponsorship and the other with it included. If the difference is negative, it is paid by the cooperative to the sponsoring school district. If the difference is positive, it is paid by the sponsoring district to the cooperative program. This puts the cooperative on its own financial feet and operates as fiscal financial security for the sponsoring district.

In addition, funds are received from participating districts. At present these funds cover administration and operation. Administration costs are figured by dividing total costs into total school enrollment of the cooperative, which results in a cost of 70 to 80 cents per pupil, paid as a participation fee once a year to maintain the director's office, secretarial salaries, equipment, maintenance, and materials. The second fee paid by districts is the per pupil assessment. After state monies are figured, the remaining costs of the total number of programs is computed and divided by the number of children. The result is per pupil fee of approximately $400. So, if a school district has twenty children in the program and an enrollment of 2,000 children in their school district, their total cost would be $8,000 as the total per pupil assessment plus $1,400 participation fee. That school district thus has any one of a number of programs to place children, in addition to psychological and administrative services for the relatively low cost of $9,400 a year to the participating district.

The cooperative program presently maintains the following classes in special education in Northeast Johnson County:

Table 1

No. of Classes	Area	Students
1	Primary Trainable Mentally Retarded	8
1	Intermediate Trainable Mentally Retarded	8
3	Primary I Educable Mentally Retarded	33
3	Primary II Educable Mentally Retarded	33
3	Intermediate I Educable Mentally Retarded	31
3	Intermediate II Educable Mentally Retarded	33
2	Primary Learning Disabilities	18
3	Intermediate Learning Disabilities	33
1	Primary Emotionally Disturbed	10
1	Intermediate Emotionally Disturbed	5
1	Primary I Hard of Hearing	8
1	Primary II Hard of Hearing	9
1	Intermediate Hard of Hearing	8
1	Primary Orthopedically Handicapped	7
1	Itinerant Program, Visually Impaired	
2	Homebound Fulltime Teachers	} 15
3	Homebound Parttime Teachers	
	Total Number of Children Served	259
	Staff	
	Total number of Teachers Serving	31
	Total number of Administrators	2
	Total number of Psychologists	2
	Total number of Noncertified Personnel	2
	Total Staff	37

With approximately 260 students enrolled, we have what we consider an excellent beginning program that adequately provides for a large number of students who need specialized programs to meet their needs. In addition to these programs there are hospital and home bound programs with administration by a director and his assistant. Two secretaries serve the administrators and two psychologists. The total cost of this program is just over $300,000 per year including both state monies and participating district fees. The program serves approximately 260 children in classrooms and approximately 425 children per year including money spent for psychological testing for children who do not enter into the program, hospitalized and home bound, as well as itinerant visually impaired children.

The cooperative program in turn cooperates with other area programs. For instance, Kansas City, Kansas, places its primary orthopedically handicapped children in our program. In turn, we place our intermediate children in their program. Both programs are housed in the same facility which happens to be the University of Kansas Medical Center, Children's Rehabilitation Unit.

Additionally, students are taken into the program from districts that have not joined the cooperative. These districts pay a special rate of approximately $900 per year. The tuition is paid by the school district sending the child.

A number of cases have arisen where nonparticipating school districts were unwilling to pay the tuition fee while the parents were extremely willing. However, our rule and our philosophy of special education services, as an obligation of the school district, has been maintained by allowing tuition fees only from districts, not from parents.

The same is true of transportation fees. We contract only with school districts, not with parents. What agreement or arrangement is reached between each school district and parents of exceptional children is up to the school district, not to the cooperative.

Since we have a parochial enrollment in the area, parochial children who need special education facilities transfer back into their public school district and from there are placed in special education.

Problems

Any cooperative program as well as any program in special education has certain problems relative to the fact that operations in special education are somewhat different than one finds in either elementary or secondary education.

Transportation is perhaps the largest problem in our cooperative program even though our children do not travel relatively large distances. We exist in an area of approximately 80 square miles with the majority of children being bussed to their special education classrooms. It is amazing that a simple thing like bus transportation, which has a minute part to play, can have such tremendous impact upon this program. Many of the children are picked up at their home, delivered to the program, and returned to their front steps. Some are carried up those steps. The overriding philosophy is basically to get the children to class. Since the placement of classes is dependent upon elementary schools where rooms are available, few children are placed within their own local area. In fact one finds children traveling ten miles one direction. Since the bus route of each bus is dependent upon a

particular class, the child could easily travel 50 miles before getting to school, he thus could travel for over one and one half hours. We have managed to change the bus company's thinking on this problem to the point that no child travels more than one hour. Probably the majority of problems with transportation relate to the caliber of personnel driving buses, since the special needs of the children must be considered. For instance, some drivers fail to pick up children or the driver has not been informed that the child to be picked up is orthopedically handicapped and therefore the bus driver arrives at the home, sits in the bus and waits, while the mother of the child is inside the door with the child in a wheelchair waiting for the bus driver. Due to lack of communication the child is not taken to class. One bus driver could not make his scheduled run because he was taking his own child to school using the school bus and the child wasn't allowed in the building prior to 8:30 in the morning; therefore, until this problem was solved this bus was running thirty to thirty five minutes late every day.

It would seem that in establishing a transportation program for a cooperative there is the choice between having transportation arranged by the cooperative program or having it handled by the parent, and from what we have seen, the majority of parents are willing to assume this responsibility. In a number of cases, with the children in my own district, when an impasse has been reached between what potentially can take place in bus transportation versus the desires of the parent, the child has been taken out of the bus transportation pool and his transportation handled by his parent.

Another problem is whether or not there should be a fee for transportation. We have a number of arrangements according to the policies of various cooperative districts in Kansas. There is no policy in the cooperative as transportation is left on a fee or free basis with each district. Some districts pay the entire fee which is high compared to the transportation of nonexceptional children. Others mandate the same payment for exceptional children as for the nonexceptional. In my district, parents of both exceptional and nonexceptional children are expected to pay $6.50 per month for transportation with the district paying the remainder. Of course, transportation of the nonexceptional child costs much less than transportation of the exceptional child, but our decision was for equity.

Additional problems are found in the administrative area, and these relate to the director's relationship with the board of directors. They have not clearly defined for our director his responsibility and his relationship to the board. The resultant confusion is being cleared up by an adequate set of policies, rules, and regulations. Also in dealing with a ten member board composed of school administrators, the director must deal with a power structure and, depending upon the item under discussion, the power structure changes.

Other problems relate to the duties and functions of the director of special education for the cooperative. In Kansas, our director has a long distance to travel to reach program after program. Yet basically the director is also a supervisor, and until the program reaches that degree of sophistication at which supervisors become operational in the program, he must operate as a supervisor. Yet at the same time he is held to his office by finance, transportation, and relationship problems, and literally the director has to fight his way out of the office and into the classrooms, because this is what superintendents expect him to do. It seems that superintendents want to get directors of special education into the supervisory

role. Yet the director has a special problem. His faculty is spread throughout the cooperative in various buildings under the jurisdiction of principals. If the special education teacher identifies with the faculty and administration of the building, the teacher is prone to program changes that relate his class more towards the accepted practices and principles inherent in the building, which may be detrimental to acceptable practice in special education. If the teacher relates to the special education director, the teacher risks isolation from the building faculty and perhaps illicits unfavorable responses from the building principal. The quandary exists whenever supervisory control is lacking and programs are spread over large geographical distances. But even in a well balanced program where individualized special education programs are coterminous, nuances that limit the alternatives of choice both for the teacher and the director can exist and result in a limiting of administrative sufficiency and efficiency.

Conclusion

Basically the philosophy behind our program has been that special education services can be provided for all children regardless of the size of the school district. Student population and geological area are problems, but are not impossible to overcome. Through a cooperative arrangement, we are well on the road to providing for individual differences regardless of what they may be. This same program is feasible in any state, as long as there are administrators willing to cooperate one with another in a democratic fashion with the ultimate aim of helping all children in the satisfaction of their needs.

THE SEATS GAME
AN EXPERIMENTAL INSTRUMENT

by

Daniel D. Sage

School programs for exceptional children have experienced tremendous growth during the past two decades. As in many other aspects of the educational community, growth has been accelerated by the input of federal funds. From the modest beginning in 1958 under Public Law 85-926, authorizing an appropriation of one million dollars for personnel preparation, subsequent amendments have extended and increased authorizations covering both research and demonstration, and personnel training, until the amount for the award year beginning September, 1969, totals 37.5 million dollars.

The proliferation of public school programs concurrent with this stimulation has created increasing attention to the need for competent administrative personnel to provide leadership at all levels and in a wide variety of organizational structures. This need is felt in the local school system, cooperative programs covering broad geographic areas, the state education agencies, various federal offices, and in both public and private residential schools. The administrative roles range from rather specific or circumscribed responsibilities for supervision in a single area of exceptionality to broad involvement with comprehensive services for a wide variety of exceptional children.

While it is clear, therefore, that no single job description can approach adequate coverage of the field encompassed by the term "Administration of Special Education," an attempt to respond to the need has been manifested in the inclusion of an "Administrative Area" in the federally supported training programs in special education. Program development grants have been awarded to encourage university training programs in this area, and post master's degree fellowships available have been increased so that during the 1967-68 academic year approximately 61 administrative fellows are studying in special education departments of 12 colleges and universities with approved funded programs, while an additional 26 fellows, whose awards were granted through State Departments of Education, are studying at a total of 19 institutions.

In considering this rapid increase in program development, it is immediately apparent that there is a lack of the basic tools and guidelines generally associated with training programs. As Willenberg (1964) has pointed out, "After more than a half century of public school programs for exceptional children, there is still no single source of comprehensive information providing a rationale, structure, and process for the administration of special education programs. Colleges and universities are preparing leadership personnel without the basic tool of such instruction - a textbook on the subject." To this time there remains a lack of clearly defined criteria for selection of training personnel in this field, an established curriculum for such training, and, perhaps most crucial, a lack of validated description of the competencies required in the administration of special education which are discriminable from those inherent in any other type of administration.

Simulation as an Approach

Recognizing the need for both an instrument for studying administrative behavior and a vehicle for conducting a meaningful training program for students already enrolled, the author has developed a set of materials utilizing the simulation model and pertaining to one of the many roles subsumed under the general term, Administration of Special Education. The development of the materials, which came to be known as the "Special Education Administration Task Simulation (SEATS) Game," was supported by a grant from the USOE, Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (Sage, 1967). The choice of the simulation model was predicated on the belief that the study of administrative behavior in actual situations imposed severe difficulties due to the impossibility of providing either standardized or controlled conditions. Further, as a training approach the success of simulation has been documented by Culbertson (1960), Hemphill, Griffith and Fredricksen (1962), and by Weinberger (1965). A previous endeavor dealing with the application of simulation to special education administration was reported by Ray L. Jones (personal communication) in which the basic "Whitman School" material of Hemphill, Griffith and Fredricksen (1962) was modified to include an integrated program for the deaf. This material has been utilized in workshops focusing on the problems related to the administration of such programs. However, the orientation is from the viewpoint of the elementary principal rather than from that of the central office administrator and is limited to that one type of special education program.

The conclusions drawn by Weinberger (1965), in his evaluation of the simulation approach, pointed out the chief strength as being "high student involvement and motivation; provision for skilled practice in a real, but controlled situation; opportunity to compare administration behavior; and a

change to test theories on real problems." The weaknesses reported were largely concerned with technical aspects of the utilization of materials. Recommendations for improved use of simulation included the provision of feedback on consequences of decisions made, particularly by a branching programed system of either a machine or manual type; the provision of greater realism through filmed problems in which the participant is a part; telephone recording and playback systems which would reduce the unrealistic amount of written responding which has been necessary in existing systems; the provision for administrative team approaches and group decisions. In the development of the SEATS Game the provision for such improvements was seen as a major objective. It was also considered necessary to orient the materials to a specific role which would have greatest applicability to the field in general, either through the selection of a role which exists in greatest frequency in the field or a type which carries the greatest degree of common elements with other roles so as to provide for maximum transfer.

High priority was also placed on the production of materials which would permit maximum utilization of the particular advantage of the simulation concept, i.e., realism within a standardized and controlled practice setting. The aim was to allow students and practitioners in the field to assume a role in a simulated special education directorship in a school district with given characteristics, in which they could react to problem situations presented in a standardized manner. In order to gain maximum realism, a simulated environment was created with sufficient background information so that participants could play the role to the hilt.

An additional prerequisite to the relevant utilization of simulation in a training program was the development of an assessment instrument for measurement of change in participants as a function of exposure to the training program, as well as a system for recording and classifying the responsive behavior of participants during the actual training process. An experimental edition of materials designed to reach these objectives is described below.

The SEATS Game

The SEATS Game consists of both background material and task inputs demanding problem solving activity. The materials utilize both written and audiovisual media with the major input of tasks taking the form of a communication in basket, supplemented by telephone calls, filmed classroom observations, and role played conferences. The content was selected with the objective of broad sampling of situations confronting the director of special education in a medium sized and typically organized administrative structure involving a comprehensive program of special education services.

The background material was designed to provide a realistic framework from which decisions and actions could be determined. Information is provided to establish both factual data and general feeling tone in order to enhance the participants involvement in the problem situations. Unlike previous school district simulations, the environment for the SEATS Game was not taken directly from any existing locality, but represents a composite of a number of real places and organizations. This composite resulted in a school district of sufficient size to guarantee the existence of children of all types of exceptionality, yet too small to permit independent operation of programs for some of the low incidence types of handicaps, and therefore, requiring cooperative arrangements which are characteristic of many actual special education organizations, and which constitute a major source of the problems peculiar to special education.

In recognition of the fact that community socioeconomic conditions have influence on the development of special education, the background materials were contrived so as to present issues for consideration most representative of those facing the greatest number of persons in the field. State laws and administrative regulations were simulated t represent a composite of those to be found in states occupying a high average position in terms of sophistication and development at the state level, but leaving noticeable room for growth and improvement.

The background material introduces the participant to the role of "Lee Blank" who has just accepted a newly created position as Director of Special Education in the Dormit Central School District (so named to befit its status as a "bedroom" community) in the suburbs of the city of Metropolis, an industrial seaport of a half million population in Jackson County, state of Lafayette.

An orientation packet contains a term paper entitled "Cultural Influences on the Development of Special Education in the Dormit Central Schools" which provides basic information as to the current status of the program and its relationship to the main stream of education in the district. Another document is the "Special Services Handbook" which serves as a guide to policies and procedures currently in effect dealing with the program, while a third document entitled "Education of Handicapped Children in the State of Lafayette" establishes the legal framework within which Lee Blank and the Dormit School District must operate. Other written material in the orientation packet welcomes Lee Blank to the district, provides updating information as to program statistics and personnel, requests an evaluation of the present status, and invites some preliminary goal setting.

A slide set with a tape recorded commentary to be used with participants after they have had an opportunity to study the written material serves to reinforce both the cognitive and affective impact of the orientation packet. Maps, organization charts, and program descriptions supply the role player with basic factual data approximating that which newcomers in an actual position would have. The audiovisual media, including taped conversations between significant colleagues in the environment and in which Lee Blank is a passive participant, exposes the role player on the affective level to the social psychological environment.

The task materials utilize a variety of media, with the written communication in basket (letters and memoranda) carrying the major load. Additional problem input is provided through telephone calls which Lee Blank receives from various teachers, administrators, parents, and ancillary professionals, posing a variety of problems on which decisions as to processing must be made. Assistant Instructors role play the initiator of these telephone conversations, following an introductory script with a general outline of alternative branches to follow depending on Lee Blank's response to the initial situation.

Materials are provided to initiate two case conferences in which Lee Blank must moderate a discussion between significant personnel concerned with reaching a decision as to the placement of certain children in the special education program. Additional audiovisual input is provided by 16 mm films of actual classroom instruction in five different settings involving five types of handicapped children. In each observation, participants are expected to practice observation skills, to carry out an evaluation of what they have seen, and to complete a written statement and/or a live supervisor teacher conference about the observation.

Utilization in a Training Workshop

Various parts of the SEATS Game had received informal testing during their development with students in seminars in administration of special education during the academic year. The total package was utilized for the first time in a two week workshop during Summer Session 1967. Twenty-one graduate students who had either recently assumed or expected in the near future to assume responsibility in an administrative position in special education were enrolled in the workshop. The group represented considerable experience in education, though with two, this had been limited to experience as school psychologists. Eighteen had previous experience in general classroom teaching, sixteen in special education teaching, but only four had had experience in general educational administration. Nine had previous experience in special education administration but in only two cases was this experience for more than four years.

In terms of previous training, all were trained to a certification level in either elementary education, special education, or school psychology. Most had some previous training in special education, with thirteen having considerable training (22 semester hours or more). Previous professional training in school administration was much less in evidence with only eight having any training and none of these over 21 semester hours.

The workshop content was organized to deal with issues in the administration, supervision, and coordination of special education programs in public school districts. The group met for 5 1/2 hours daily for nine days and the SEATS Game was used as the central core of the entire workshop. Lectures and discussions dealing with specific topics were interspersed within the five packets and activities of the SEATS Game in a manner which permitted maximum correlation between the formal topic and the simulated situations. Content of specific lecture discussions included such topics as "Varying Roles in Administration of Special Education," "Organizational Structure for Administration," "Criteria for Evaluation of Adequacy of Services," "Supervisory Relationships Under Shared Responsibilities," "Observation and Analysis of Classroom Behavior," "Physical Facilities for Special Education," "Pupil Placement Procedures" and "Ancillary Services to Instruction".

Two instructors and a number of parttime research assistants were involved in the presentation of formal material, the handling of responses to written and oral aspects of the SEATS Game, and the leading of the feedback discussions which followed each of the five packets on which the participants worked when role playing the Director of Special Education.

A special instructional communications facility in the Newhouse Communication Center at Syracuse University was utilized for this workshop and provided particular advantages for the SEATS Game. The room contains desks with individual telephones for up to 25 participants. The telephones are tied to an internal dialing system and to two tape recording decks so that two telephone conversations can be monitored and/or recorded simultaneously from a control booth adjacent to the room. In this manner, the instructors who role played the "Significant Others" in the simulated environment were able to call each participant sequentially, interrupting his work on the written items of the in basket and presenting with an optimum degree of realism the kinds of problems which the telephone brings to all administrators. Over the period of the workshop each participant received at least eight of the twelve possible telephone calls included in the SEATS Game. As a part of the feedback discussion after each work session the staff was able to select certain phone conversations for playback to the total group for analysis and

illustration of possibilities inherent in a variety of alternative reactions.

This facility also permitted showing of films, recording of group conferences involving committee decision making, and the recording of live teacher supervisor conferences which followed the classroom observation films, utilizing "simulated teachers" who role played the teacher who had been observed on film.

Of primary consideration in the entire activity was the maintenance of optimum realism for the participant while achieving maximally complete data recording of all behavior for research purposes in the analysis of the simulation game as an instrument in studying administrative behavior.

Evaluation

In the development of the SEATS Game, a number of approaches to analysis were considered and attempted on an experimental basis. The scope of this article does not permit discussion of all these procedures. However, the instrumentation utilized to measure the effects of the workshop warrants description.

A behavioral choice test, with two alternate forms had been prepared to be used as a pre- and posttest in such training situations. The test followed a simulated written communication format. Four written communications are addressed to a director of special education, coming from a subordinate (teacher), superordinate (superintendent), and extraorganizational persons (two parents in different relationships to the director), posing a variety of problems to be handled. A series of possible alternatives for handling each of the problems is presented with the subject required to indicate his degree of agreement or preference for each alternative by checking a Likert type scale for each alternative. The 44 items of each test were initially developed and organized into subscales to assess the emphasis placed by the respondent on ten interpersonal relationship dimensions in problem solving.

The theoretical construct on which the test is based lies in the hypotheses that in his interactions with others in the performance of his job, the special education administrator is required to utilize in comparison with other educational administrators:

1. Greater involvement with groups of persons (Team) rather than with one person at a time or in independent activity

2. Greater involvement with persons representing disciplines or professions other than instruction (Multidisciplinary) and, therefore, relatively less involvement with activity limited to instructional personnel only

3. Greater involvement with persons on the same level of the administrative hierarchy (Horizontal) and, therefore, relatively less involvement with subordinates and superordinates

4. Greater involvement with persons in other departments of the administrative organization (Interdepartmental) and, therefore, relatively less involvement with persons within an immediate department

5. Greater involvement with persons who are outside the administrative organization (Extraorganizational), both lay and professional individuals and organizations.

The basis for these hypotheses and a more extensive analysis regarding them are reported elsewhere by Sage (1967), but the use of the pre- and post-forms of the test in connection with this workshop served as one indication of behavioral change over a treatment period.

An additional vehicle for assessing the value of the SEATS Game took the form of an opinionnaire to be completed by subjects at the close of the workshop. This was designed to get at such factors as the relative values of each part of the simulation game, the degree of realism provided by the materials, the amount of time and emphasis placed on each part, the instructional approaches used in conjunction with the materials, and an overall subjective appraisal of the entire workshop.

Results

The effects of the utilization of the SEATS Game in this training workshop can be considered under two general categories, (a) the objective data from the pre- and posttest scores and (b) the subjective responses to the opinionnaire.

While the validity of the ten scales of interpersonal relationship dimension is open to question and will require further study, the overall change from pre- to posttest of the workshop group as compared to the control group provides evidence that the workshop experience did indeed bring about change in the way participants approach the solution of problems.

Responses to each item of the test could range on the Likert type scale from 1-5, with a 3 indicating neutral or intermediate level of preference for a particular alternative. On the pretest it was found that both the workshop and the control group made choices which averaged on the "stronger preference" side, with the total test mean for the workshop being 2.47 and for the control group 2.59. These differences between the groups are nonsignificant. As Table 1 illustrates, only one of the subscale scores, the same scale for each group, yielded a mean beyond the neutral position of 3.00.

Table 1

Mean Scores on Pre- and Posttesting
by Scales and Total Test

	Control Group (N=10)			Workshop Group (N=21)		
Scale	Pretest X	Posttest Y	t	Pretest X	Posttest Y	t
Independent	3.50	3.10	1.33	3.27	3.69	2.42*
Dyadic	2.57	2.72	.83	2.58	3.26	5.44**
Team	1.87	2.05	1.25	1.58	1.95	2.31*
Intradepartmental	1.90	1.83	.30	1.82	2.41	4.96**
Interdepartmental	2.22	2.57	2.07	2.12	2.55	4.10**
Extraorganizational	2.42	2.62	2.14	2.13	2.54	4.78**
Multidisciplinary	2.19	2.94	5.45**	2.02	2.71	6.17**
Instructional	2.46	2.58	.66	2.37	2.82	4.66**
Horizontal	2.50	2.65	.52	2.69	3.00	1.98
Vertical	2.36	2.77	2.33*	2.35	2.97	5.29**
Total Test	2.59	2.70	.84	2.47	2.84	5.32**

*Significant at .05 level.
**Significant at .01 level.

Upon posttesting, the resulting mean scores for each group were compared to the pretest and the differences in means subjected to a t test for correlated measures. As Table 1 indicates, the change in mean score on the total test from 2.47 to 2.84 for the workshop group was significant at the .01 level. Likewise, seven of the subscale changes were significant at the .01 level and two more were significant at .05. By contrast, the control group showed no significant change of mean on the total test, one subscale change significant at the .01 level,and one at the .05 level.

Scrutinizing the direction of the change scores which were significant leads to some interesting conclusions. It was found that contrary to expectations the workshop experience did not cause participants to be more prone to choose avenues of interpersonal relationships which were consistent with the aforestated theoretical constructs regarding the administrative role in special education. That is, they did not show stronger preference for team interactions, interdepartmental interactions, extraorganizational interactions, multidisciplinary interactions, etc. Instead, they showed a definite change toward a neutral position throughout the test, indicating less strength of preference for any of the alternatives.

This change is interpreted as an indication that participants bacame more cautious in committing themselves to any alternative avenue of interaction and more prone to consider multiple ramifications of an issue and, perhaps, to delay judgement. In this regard, it was noted that the participants took much longer to respond to the posttest, even though practice with the familiar format should have allowed more rapid response. When questioned about this, subjects were quick to acknowledge that the workshop experience had caused them to consider more carefully all of the issues involved and to be less certain of shooting from the hip.

The opinionnaire, which was completed by participants anonymously at the end of the workshop,consisted of 15 items, 10 of which pertained specifically to the simulation approach with the remaining ones dealing with more general aspects of the workshop. A summary of the responses to the opinionnaire would indicate that almost all of the participants felt that the use of the SEATS Game had been a highly appropriate and valuable approach. Most felt that the in basket items were outstandingly or fairly realistic and that the proportion of emphasis on simulation within the workshop had been optimal. There was an expression of feeling that greater time could have been spent on followup discussion of the simulation activities but that the distribution among the various types of activities comprising the SEATS Game had been appropriate. It was felt that a greater emphasis on the oral communication situations and role playing in group conferences would have been desirable and that more time to devote to study of background material prior to attempting problem solving would have been desirable also. However, no one suggested that there had been too much of any one thing, so to extend time on any one activity would necessitate adding time to the total workshop.

Most felt that the classroom observation films, the role playing of group case conferences, and the telephone calls had been valuable and a realistic or very realistic experience. The minority who considered these situations somewhat unrealistic still attested to their value within the framework of training. There was unanimous agreement that the overall value of the workshop was extremely worthwhile. Responses to an open ended item at the end of the opinionnaire were highly lauditory, and suggested ways of extending the total time for future workshops in order to go into greater depth on some aspects of the total experience. The group was also unanimous in its expression that the daily schedule had been satisfactory and that the 5 1/2 hour day had not been too

long, given the variety and flexibility of activities that were included.

From the point of view of the instructional staff utilizing the materials, there was confirmation that the aspects having greatest value were those involving live feedback such as the face to face conferences, both group and dyadic, and the phone calls. Unfortunately, these are also the activities which impose the greatest complication in terms of time and staff utilization for groups even as small as 20 participants. Evaluation of the tape recordings of these aspects, which was largely subjective due to having only crude and limited analytic systems for this material, suggested that these activities were providing an anxiety producing but generally appreciated opportunity for the participants to play a role in which communication and awareness of the other person were the key factors in coordination, mediation, and persuasion. It was clear that the pressure existing in these situations influences responses on the part of the participants which are worthy of analysis on many more dimensions than those which have been developed thus far for using the SEATS Game as a research tool.

Fielding difficult problems coming from difficult people was seen by most subjects as a much needed and rarely available experience. One effect of the experience is perhaps best demonstrated by the comment one participant added to the end of the opinionnaire form stating:

> I know I'm a good EMR teacher and because I've been asked by my Administration to help new teachers, I'm willing. I also know - this course helps me to make up my mind - I do not care to be a Lee Blank. However, I have gained insight into administration and the problems involved.

The implication of this statement, when one considers the manner in which many persons move into the ranks of administration, may be of unforeseen relevance for the application of simulation procedures to training programs.

Conclusions

The findings from this application of simulation to a special education administration training workshop, when one considers the reports of previous uses of the technique, are certainly not surprising. It would seem that the simulation game is a "sure fire" technique, particularly when confronted by persons who are relative novices to the field. The significance of its contribution at this point lies in the fact that the materials described herein may provide a vehicle for training and an instrument for behavioral research in a field so far lacking in directly relevant tools. There is no question that the vehicle is at this point crude, but it is a beginning. On the assumption that the basic process of administration in special education would vary only slightly from that in other administration and can, therefore, depend upon using general administrative knowledge as a foundation, the additional specific content and specialized approaches provided by the type of workshop and materials described herein may do much toward preparing personnel to fill the role.

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A COMPREHENSIVE EVALUATION, THERAPY AND ACADEMIC TRAINING PROGRAM FOR HANDICAPPED CHILDREN IN A SPARSELY POPULATED STATE

by

Everett D. Peery

Presented here is a brief description of a comprehensive evaluation, therapy,and academic training program for handicapped children in a sparsely populated state. This program is not comparable to the tremendous programs in existence in some of the larger states and cities, but it is a program which is somewhat unique.

Some background about the state of Montana is needed. Montana is the fourth largest state in the United States with a population of slightly over 700,000 people, giving it a density of about four and one-half people per square mile. The people in the state of Montana retain a great deal of the pioneer spirit.

Special Education Program

The Special Education Program has grown very rapidly in the last few years. The school systems in the state provide 92 classes for educable mentally retarded, seven classes for trainable mentally retarded, and ten of the school districts hire speech therapists. Additional speech therapy is provided to some schools through the Elks Mobile Speech Program and the Easter Seal Speech Centers. There is one class in the state for hard of hearing children and there are five classes for the physically handicapped. There is a state residential institution for the mentally retarded and a state residential school for the deaf and blind.

The Montana Center for Handicapped Children was established in 1947 as a Center for Cerebral Palsy. At that time it provided only speech therapy and physical therapy for cerebral palsied children in five counties in the state. Since then it has developed and evolved into a somewhat more comprehensive program. Since 1955, it has been called the Montana Center for Handicapped Children and is sponsored by three agencies including the Montana State Department of Health, which is primarily concerned with the medical clinical programs

and provides the salaries for most of the Center staff as well as a large proportion of the operational funds. Eastern Montana College, which is concerned with the teacher training aspects of the program, provides some salaries and operational funds as well as the housing for the Center in the College Administration building. We are, at the present time, looking forward to the construction of a new building which we anticipate will be much more adequate and will allow for additional expansion and development of our program. The third sponsor is the Billings School District which is concerned with the educational program for the children and provides part of the salaries for the teachers, transportation for the children, the educational materials and supervision of the education program.

There are four primary areas of our program. The school program provides training at three levels. Children may enter our preschool class at the age of 3 years. At age 6 they may be placed in the primary class and older children may be placed in or progress into the intermediate room which includes classes through grade 8. The school provides a flexible, individualized, special education training program for children with a variety of handicapping conditions. Physically, medically, and orthopedically handicapped children, as well as those with multiple handicaps, and children with communication problems may be included in our school program. The children in the school receive the therapies they require including speech therapy, physical therapy, occupational therapy, and play or psychotherapy. The children are placed in regular school programs at the earliest opportunity.

Our clinical program includes a Medical Clinic which meets twice each month, a Cleft Palate Clinic which participates in the statewide program for cleft palate children and is conducted six times per year, a Mental Retardation Evaluation Clinic meeting once each month, and Speech and Hearing Clinics conducted at least once each week.

The fourth area of our program is the training of student teachers in special education, student nurses from our training hospitals, and the training of certain therapists.

Our basic philosophy is the team approach; with communication between the members of the staff and between the members of the team of the various clinics being of utmost importance. Intrastaff communication is on both a formal and informal basis with many discussions taking place at coffee breaks and incidentally throughout the day. Staff conferences, parent conferences, and special small group conferences are called for a formal exchange of information and communication.

Clinic Procedure

The procedure and sequence of a Medical Clinic, which is typical of all our clinics, is structured around team efforts. A child is brought to the Center by his parents and met by the receptionist. While the parents are being interviewed by the public health nurse (who is the coordinator of patient services) and furnishing her with additional medical and social background information, the child may be seen by one of the therapists or the clinical psychologist. The psychologist will make an examination, not only to determine the level of mental function, but also to discover possible adjustment problems and to make a preliminary assessment of the child's personality. The child will be seen by the physical therapist and the occupational therapist and will have a speech and hearing evaluation. He may also be seen by a special education consultant. On "Clinic" day the patient will be seen by a pediatrician

and an orthopedic surgeon. Following these examinations the findings of each of the team members is presented and discussed at the staffing session. The team then develops recommendations for training, therapy, or treatment for the patient. Suggestions are presented to the parents who are helped to make arrangements to follow these recommendations if they so desire.

Patients in our speech and hearing clinics are evaluated by the psychologist, the speech pathologist, and the audiologist, and a case history is taken by the public health nurse. Again, the findings are reported and a plan of treatment or therapy is developed and recommended to the parents.

Our Mental Retardation Evaluation Clinics are staffed by a pediatrician, our public health nurse, a psychologist, and a speech and hearing pathologist. A great deal of parent counseling and followup work is done in connection with this clinic.

Our Cleft Palate Team is one of four in the statewide, coordinated program for the care and treatment of children with cleft palate. The four teams in the state are each assigned a geographic area to serve and all the teams are coordinated by one person in the State Department of Health. Our team consists of a maxillofacial surgeon otolaryngologist, a prosthodontist, an orthodontist, a pediatrician, a medical social worker, a public health nurse, a clinical psychologist, a speech pathologist, and an audiologist. Here again the program is characterized by a coordinated team approach. Each member of the team knows what to expect of the other team members and makes adjustments in his program and treatment to give the best overall treatment for the patient.

Referral may be made from any of our clinics for laboratory tests, neurological or other special clinical evaluations as required.

It is anticipated that additional clinics may be developed in such areas as the diagnosis of educational problems and for the neurologically impaired. Plans are under way for the establishment of a program to diagnose the vocational potential of handicapped children, provide basic skill training, and occupational counseling. It is anticipated that the college will soon have a master's degree program for the training of vocational rehabilitation counselors which will fit closely with our program.

Our future is hopeful with the prospect of a new building and an opportunity to better serve the handicapped children of Montana.

ABSTRACT

A CRITERION OF ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

by

Richard J. Kothera

A criterion of administrative problems in the administration of special education has been developed from a collection of 815 actual problems collected over four one week periods. The data were collected from four distinct administrative areas and include city and unified school districts, a suburban high school district, a suburban elementary cooperation program, and a university demonstration school. Using the percentage of problems contained in the criterion, a list of 100 actual problems of special education administration was developed. This material is recommended for use ancillary to training programs in special education administration in addition to their potential use in simulation of special education administration.